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SORGHUM NUTRITIONAL QUALITY IMPROVEMENT

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1. INTRODUCTION

Sorghum has had very extensive use as a food crop in Africa and Asia and as a major feed grain in North America and more recently in South America. In spite of this extensive use, improving the nutritional quality of the sorghum grain has received little interest in experimental work until recently. Sorghum varieties have been selected primarily for their yield and resistance to drouth, diseases and insects, and acceptability preferences. Sorghum has been grown primarily in drier areas of each continent during the season of summer rainfall.

A. Natural Variability

In recent years extensive variability in sorghum grain quality has been noted. These quality factors include protein amount, amino acid composition and digestibility in addition to the ever present yield, resistance and adaptation factors incorporated into varieties. The availability of hybrids in 1956 brought about extensive increases in yield, resistance and adaptation factors incorporated into varieties. The availability of hybrids in 1956 brought about extensive increases in yield, resistance and adaptation factors incorporated into varieties. The availability of hybrids in 1956 brought about extensive increases

1 increases in yield, where they were used, and simultaneously a decline
2 in protein percentage. In general this negative relationship holds
3 ^{major} type with all of the grassy cereals, including rice, wheat and maize.
4 That is, when yield goes up protein declines unless management and
5 selection pressures are applied to remove this reaction. Simultane-
6 ously or just immediately following the development of hybrids, a world
7 collection was brought together (in the years 1958-63 by The Rocke-
8 feller Foundation). This collection revealed a tremendous variation of
9 phenotypes and nutritional factors of interest.

11 B. Sorghum Production

13 As improved varieties and hybrids became available, management pro-
14 blems were improved along with them and new yield horizons opened up to
15 the point that yields were vastly increased. The traditional grain
16 sorghum production methods gave yields of sorghum grain from 500 to
17 700 kg/ha. Improved fertility and management practices under the most
18 favorable conditions have brought about commercial hybrid yields of over
19 13,000 kg/ha in the United States. In exceptional circumstances ^{experimental} yields
20 of over 10,000 kg/ha have been relatively frequent and average good farm
21 yields have reached 8500 kg/ha. In Africa, variety yields above 4500
22 kg/ha are quite rare, being found only in relatively small improved
23 fields. Some of these low yields are associated with the season of
24 growth such as when the grain is matured in the dry season, poor soil

fertility, and lack of disease, insect, bird and rodent control. Also *growing sorghum in a rotation with other crops—especially legumes,* important in yields are effective management factors including good seed availability, seedbed preparation, proper seeding rate, early thinning, water and drainage management, weed control, proper harvest and storage. As land pressures increase there will be a real pressure for increased yields and nutritional value to be obtained from each hectare. A major factor in higher production for many areas is to get varieties with more weathering and pest resistance so that grain may be produced when moisture is more available.

C. Food and Feed Uses

In areas where sorghum is a food crop the food preferences of each particular area have imposed a severe restriction on the types of grain that may be used in variety development. In India the selection is primarily for the white, creamy white to yellow and pearly types. In Africa the variability of preference is tremendous with isolation being a primary factor in such food preferences.

Almost all sorghum consumption the world over has been of the whole grain. In India it is used in unleavened bread and in much of Africa it is a primary ingredient for porridge or much with many types being used in preparation of beer. As a feed grain in the United States it has been utilized as a whole grain, but more extensive methods of preparation have been used such as grinding, steam rolling and other

4

1 treatments in a deliberate attempt to improve the intake and nutritional
2 value.

3 Grain sorghum studies have shown a great variation in digesti-
4 bility and feeding response for all classes of animals tested, as well
5 as for human nutrition. Studies concerning the improvement of amino
6 acid composition and digestibility have been limited and slowed due to
7 the complicated factors of ease of assessment of these values and inter-
8 action of environment and management factors. Environmental and manage-
9 ment factors interact with variety responses to produce grain which
10 differs greatly in nutritional value as well as yields. Studies on
11 nutritional improvement of cereals were held back until the advent of
12 opaque-2 maize by the belief that as yield went up protein had to go
13 down and as protein went up the limiting amino acids had to decrease.

15 II. ENVIRONMENT AND MANAGEMENT EFFECT ON NUTRITIONAL QUALITY AND YIELD

17 A. Soil Fertility Effects

18 Nitrogen fertilization increased the level of protein (Waggle, et
19 al., 1967) in several U.S. commercial hybrids from 9.1 to 12.6% protein.
20 While this happened the amino acid, lysine, was increased also, but at
21 a slower rate from 0.22 to 0.25% of the grain. Another limiting amino
22 acid, threonine, was also increased at a much slower rate similarly to
23 lysine, while several less essential amino acids such as glutamic acid,
24 proline, alanine, isoleucine and leucine were increased to a greater

1 degree with higher nitrogen fertilization. Tests at three sites showed
2 a significant location effect on yield and protein level.

3 Studies (Campbell and Pickett, 1968) reported a significant effect
4 of four nitrogen levels on 18 lines selected from the world collection.
5 The relatively large genotypic differences for protein and lysine noted
6 in this experiment, persisted under all four fertility levels tested
7 and were much more important than the differences due to the specific
8 fertility treatments. The negative correlation of protein and lysine
9 was significant ($r = -.1214^{**}$), but much lower than previous data on
10 many crops would suggest. Some of the higher protein and lysine geno-
11 types had relatively high yield potential as indicated by data on
12 panicle size under comparable populations.

13 The adjustment of pH on some soils may be critical to the minimal
14 production of sorghum and also the protein quantity and quality. In
15 many tropical soils that are highly acid, the availability of phosphorus
16 can be a problem and Al and Mn toxicity can be critical. Zinc, copper,
17 molybdenum and sulfur deficiencies are the result of other limiting
18 trace elements that have been found in some places. All of these
19 factors are important for consideration in order to consistently expect
20 higher yields and improved quality.

21 22 B. Plant Population and Planting Pattern

23
24 The number of plants per acre should be adjusted to the amount

1 and pattern of moisture available. In extreme dry zones the population
2 may be down to 40,000 plants per hectare. With more adequate moisture
3 the population should be increased to 120,000 or 150,000 plants per
4 hectare. Under the most favorable conditions it will be up to 300,000
5 plants per hectare or more. Sorghum has a great ability to compensate
6 for low populations through basal and nodal tiller production. Basal
7 tillers are a primary contributor to yield and are of particular value
8 when they have a similar height and maturity as the main stems. Thus
9 tillering and total plant survival influence yield and composition.
10 Head number and weight of grain per head are drastically effected by
11 population but seed size may also be adversely affected later in the
12 growing season by adverse conditions. Anything that drastically re-
13 duces yield may result in shriveled seed. This shriveled seed will be
14 significantly higher and more variable in protein percentage and the
15 energy availability of immature sorghum grain is lower (Deyoe et al.,
16 1970).

17 Under the drier condition and lower population situations, wide
18 rows are necessary (100 cm or more), but under more favorable moisture
19 conditions row widths to the maximum of 75 cm or less should be used.
20 Under the most favorable conditions it is advisable to go down to 15 to
21 35 cm. When closer rows and higher population can be used they offer
22 advantages of weed control and moisture retention under dense leaf
23 canopies. This in turn can result in higher yields from a given
24 moisture level.

C. Weed and Pest Control

Weed control in subsistence agriculture is often quite ineffective but may be assisted by adequate population and timely weeding. In improved agriculture weed control by Atrazine-Ramrod mixed at a ratio of 2.5 kg/ha and 5 kg/ha or Propazine at the ratio of 2.5 kg/ha can be used. If weed control is inadequate, drastic reduction in yield may occur. Similarly, thinning, if it is part of the cultural practice, must be done early to avoid a drastic reduction in yield.

Resistances are necessary to the major diseases and insects in the area concerned in order to get economical yields. The insects and diseases that attach sorghum are summarized by Wall and Ross (1970). If economical yields are not possible due to lack of resistances or other factors there is no interest in types with improved nutritional value. In some areas this fact has retarded the investigations for improved nutritional values. Thus diseases and insects plus birds and rodents are not only critical to production, but their control is necessary followed by effective grain storage of any nutritional grain that may be produced. Storage in order to maintain food and feed supplies is influenced by low humidity with low temperatures being secondary and pest control. The study of sorghum storage procedures with the development of adequate and economically acceptable control will continue to improve the sorghum production.

D. Water Management

Sorghum is usually produced during the intense rainy season, on river flood plains in many parts of Africa and under irrigation in Asia where both surface and internal soil drainage are absolutely necessary for optimum production. Soil alkalinity and salt accumulations in some areas are primary limiting factors. If irrigation is used it should be adequate and dependable for as much of the growing season as possible. The influence of water management on sorghum grain quality merits further investigation (Miller, et al., 1964).

III. GENETIC IMPROVEMENT

A. Variability in the Sorghum Collection and Breeding Materials

The Rockefeller Foundation sorghum collection gathered by cooperators all over the world in 1958-63 numbered over 5,000 viable lines. Since that time several thousand additional lines have been added and now the collection numbers over 15,000. Utilization of this collection has allowed plant breeders to be aware of nutritional improvement and has broadened the base for variety development and hybrid production. This tremendous reservoir of natural variability will be supplemented for several years by additional lines collected in Africa and Asia. Several lines from the collection have been isolated that are equal to

1 or exceed U.S. commercial hybrids in yield. In addition to this amount
2 of fixable vigor, great heterosis exists in selected crosses. Great
3 variation also exists in all the components that go together to make up
4 nutritional quality. Percent protein varies from 6 to over 20 percent
5 with most of the relatively economical lines falling in the 8 to 15
6 percent range. The variations in essential amino acids as percent of
7 protein and certain ratios as well as oil were: lysine, <1% - 3.8%;
8 threonine, 2.5% - 5.3%; tryptophane, <1% - 4.5%; methionine + cystine,
9 98% - 4.62% isoleucine, 3.76% - 5.51%; isoleucine/leucine ratio,
10 .272% - .380% (highest best); and oil, 1.2% - 6%. Tannin variation is
11 at least 0.2 to 2.0% (Chang and Fuller, 1964). At Purdue the catechin
12 equivalent variation using the vanillin-HCl method (Burns, 1963) was
13 0.4% - 13.7%. There was a bimodal distribution over widely variable
14 selected lines and commercial hybrids. Mean in vitro digestibility
15 ranged from 38 - 93% and was closely correlated ($r = +.95$) with
16 catechin equivalents. Weight gains by weanling rats on selected sorghum
17 lines with mineral and vitamin supplementation, showed a range from
18 losses of 3.28 gm to gains of 16.8 gm in two week periods. (See table 5).
19 These weight gains were related to levels of crude protein, limiting
20 amino acids and in vitro dry matter disappearance rates. Great varia-
21 bility in the collection exists in grain size with a range of .5 g/100
22 seeds to over 5.5 g/100 seeds. There is also much difference in seed
23 color, panicle size, opening and exertion, height, lodging resistance,
24 leaf number, angle and size and all other observable phenotypic

1 characteristics. The superior types for chemical composition and
2 digestibility occur in almost all of the races or phenotypes which are
3 in turn from many sources of origin. This broad array of variability
4 in types associated with improvable yield and nutritional value is
5 important in order to satisfy the taste and acceptability preferences
6 of humans for food and for feeding uses for various classes of live-
7 stock. In most sorghum improvement projects in the world there is a
8 need for a wider selection for both yield and nutritional quality from
9 the germplasm available in the world collection. The available col-
10 lection items can greatly supplement the relatively narrow base in
11 present commercial production or in local production which is avail-
12 able for food, feed and processing. This wide diversity of type,
13 selected from the collection, is not only important for yield and
14 nutritional quality potential, but it represents diversity of both type
15 and cytoplasm that are important for resistance to diseases and insects
16 presently know or that may occur in the future.

17 Various combinations exist of protein level, certain amino acid
18 levels and their ratios, starch amount and availability and total
19 digestibility as influenced by polyphenolic compounds (including
20 "tannin") and vitreousness or hardness, which can be recombined for
21 total nutritional improvement.

22 The AID-sponsored project at Purdue is in the process of cataloging
23 the varieties that exist in the collection and is making available seed
24 and information to interested investigators around the world. The

1 information on selected lines that is presently being cataloged in-
2 cludes origin, yield potential, protein content, amino acid content,
3 certain phenotypic characteristics, oil content, location performance
4 and feeding performance values or indicators. Improved yield and
5 nutritional quality factors have been discovered to exist in all types
6 and races of sorghum. Present investigations include trials to identify
7 lines and hybrids that have yield and nutritional stability across
8 various environmental and management conditions. Therefore, breeders
9 with particular objectives of taste preferences, seed type, local
0 resistances, color, panicle type, height and canopy will have the
1 opportunity to incorporate these new materials into their sets of ob-
2 jectives from the most adapted of several sources.

3 4 B. Composition Including Protein, Limiting Amino Acids and Oil

5 Protein content apart from yield means relatively little. Very
6 high protein contents may be obtained when yields are low and vice
7 versa with the same lines or hybrids, therefore, both need to be
8 determined as soon as possible.

9 Crude protein is similar for mature and immature grain, but less
0 energy is available in immature grain (Deyoe, et al., 1970). Higher lysine,
1 aspartic acid and glycine amount are found in immature grain, but lower
22 amounts of glutamic acid, protein and leucine are found. This indicates
23 further the misleading characteristic of crude protein alone in sorghum
24 nutrition and stresses the importance of considering grain yield, pro-

1 tein (available protein per unit area), amino acid balance, and avail-
2 ability of starch and digestibility in a total ration or menu for a
3 favorable response.

4 The protein amount is also affected by sampling procedures which
5 take into account significant plant variations border effects, includ-
6 ing heights and maturities, foreign materials, seed density, variations
7 within panicle, soil fertility level, and other management practices.
8 In replicated experiments for protein analysis, coefficients of varia-
9 tion of 4% - 10% can be obtained where adequate sampling procedures are
10 used. An adequate sample should include portions of ten or more dif-
11 ferent representative panicles of open pollinated seed from each
12 bordered plot. Investigations to date show individual plant composi-
13 tion data to be inadequate in measuring F_2 plants as reported by
14 Collins (1969). He described the lack of validity of a single plant
15 sample to represent a line since he found significant differences among
16 single plant samples within a pure line. Procedures to date have been
17 to measure the average progeny of such plants rather than the indivi-
18 dual plants themselves. For maximum precision of genotype comparisons
19 all samples must be made from the same location and in a given year.
20 The compositions are usually significantly different from location to
21 location and year to year as shown by present AID Purdue work. (Table 1). The
22 genotypic differences are of sufficient magnitude, however, to allow
23 selection for superior performance under these conditions.

24 Variability of seed size (2.63 - 4.02 g/100 seeds). percent oil

1 (3.07 - 5.28%), percent embryo (10.5 - 13.9%) and the variability in
2 percent protein and percent lysine of protein in the whole seed, embryo
3 and embryo free portion of the seed have been investigated by Rodriguez
4 (1969). The data presented in table 2 illustrates the variability he
5 found in percent protein and percent lysine of protein in the whole
6 seed as compared to embryo and non-embryo seed portions. Unpublished
7 work done as a followup and as a part of the AID-Purdue Sorghum Project
8 showed ranges of 9.67 to 14.24% protein in the whole seed, 15.60 -
9 21.58% protein in the embryo, 8.42 - 14.07% protein in the non-embryo
10 seed protein, 5.42 - 11.54% embryo of the whole seed, 2.20 - 5.22% oil
11 of the whole seed with the weight of 100 seeds varying from 1.5056 -
12 3.3632 grams per 100 seeds. The correlations from this work and
13 presented in table 3 show the potential for improving protein content
14 by altering embryo size and oil content. An even wider range of seed
15 size has been recently observed (0.5 gm to 5.5 gm/100 seeds) at Purdue
16 University.

17 18 C. Digestibility and Feeding Values

19
20 Sorghum has a much greater range of digestibility values than the
21 other major cereal grains of rice, wheat and maize. Wide variations in
22 amounts of lysine and sulfur bearing amino acids (methionine and
23 cystine) were reported (Nawar, et al., 1970). They showed that lysine
24 was the first limiting amino acid followed by the S-amino acids and

1 threonine for weanling rats. Supplements of these amino acids or
 2 dried skim milk gave improved growth and nitrogen deposition with 3 of
 3 the 17 samples studied, but not all responded favorably to amino acid
 4 supplementation. It is also reported that lysine, vitamin and mineral
 5 supplements gave about the same rat growth response as casein added to
 6 the grain sorghum (Howe, 1970), however, in this study lysine supplement
 7 alone gave no response, but Ca alone did give a significant response in
 8 rat growth rates.

9 When the protein was extracted from selected grain sorghum and spag
 10 2 corn (Skoch, et al., 1970) the corn yielded twice the extractable pro-
 11 tein as the grain sorghum. The glutelin fraction contained the major
 12 soluble protein of both. McGinty (1969) found that the pericarp of
 13 varieties that digested poorly, when separated and added to sorghum
 14 grain that normally digested well, would depress their digestion. This
 15 result could be induced by tannic acid and lessened by polyethylene
 16 glycol in an in vitro dry matter digestion^(IVDMD) system (Tilley, et al.,
 17 1963). This indicates further the necessity of considering factors in-
 18 fluencing utilization in addition to those affecting yield, protein and
 19 amino acid composition.

20 Preliminary work at Purdue on percent distribution of the protein
 21 fractions in sorghum is shown in table 4. Two pairs of sorghum lines
 22 were contrasting significantly in IVDMD levels and in rat growth. Sig-
 23 nificant shifts in four of the five fractions studied occur between
 24 lines with high and low IVDMD. The fraction of whole kernel and

1 endosperm react differently but the differences between high and low
2 IVDMD lines still existed

3 A wide range in dry matter digested (17 - 71%) was found by the
4 nylon bag technique (Anthony and Haveland, 1971) when ground grain
5 samples of approximately 1,000 lines from the collection were tested.
6 In his work a bird resistant check averaged 41%.

7 Light trashy grain depresses nutritive value more than light im-
8 mature grain (Hinders, 1971). Mitjavila, (1970) was able to depress
9 significantly the absorption of glucose and methionine in the small
0 intestine of a mouse from 6 to 10% with 1 mg/l of gallotannic acid; but
1 the uptake of butyric acid was not depressed until the concentration of
12 gallotannic acid exceeded 10 mg/l. Conner, et al., (1969) illustrated
13 with growing chickens a reduction in growth rate as the tannin content
14 of the grain was increased which could partially be alleviated by sup-
15 plementation with large amounts of methionine and choline, but feed
16 intake was depressed and the tannin showed a toxic effect.

17 Peterson (1969) reported a ration of 49.32% sorghum, 0.68% tech-
18 nical tannin with 50% basal diet affected feed consumption, rate of gain,
19 chemical composition and edible quality of chicken meat produced on the
20 diet. This difference was not attributed to a difference in metaboliz-
21 able energy and protein intake. The availability of the amino acid did
22 not appear to be related to seed coat or to tannin content as several
23 sorghums with low protein quality were also low in tannin (Stephenson, et
24 1971). The influence of tannin and related substances in the sorghum

1 grain remains an area of additional nutritional research and breeding
2 control. He stated that the first limiting amino acid for poultry was
3 not lysine but methionine and some sorghums offer relatively high
4 methionine quantities. The amino acid content is very variable and
5 high levels are judged to be possible through plant breeding.

6 Most of these investigations to date have been made on a relatively
7 narrow germplasm base. There is available now much new relatively
8 high yielding germplasm which varies greatly in composition and which
9 will allow selection of variety improvement in protein amount and amino
10 acid composition as well as in types with adequate digestibility,
11 palatability or acceptability and having the necessary resistances. Such
12 research points to the practicality of the potential development of a
13 more balanced nutritional sorghum. The data in table 5 which show the
14 results of recent rat feeding trials at Purdue with sorghum lines vary-
15 ing significantly in rate of in vitro dry matter disappearance (IVDMD)
16 and protein percent, lysine, threonine and methionine.

17 The weight gains at the end of two weeks relates very closely with
18 those at the end of four weeks. The two week weight gain there-
19 fore is now considered to be sufficient to indicate the ⁴side differ-
20 ence in nutritional value of various sorghum lines for rat growth.
21 Consumption does increase with the rate of IVDMD but not in a straight
22 line relationship. Correlation coefficients for these factors are
23 shown in table 6. Significant negative correlations exist between
24 protein and lysine and lysine with IVDMD, but positive relatively strong

1 correlations of the same magnitude are seen between protein and IVDMD
2 and protein and weight gain. Also IVDMD with weight gain is in the
3 same good relationship with weight gains. The correlation of 4 = +.98
4 for weight gain at two weeks and 4 weeks and similar values for other
5 trials have been the basis for going to two week rat ~~feeding~~ trials.
6 Methionine is significantly and positively correlated with percent pro-
7 tein, IVDMD, weight gain, protein x lysine, feed consumption and protein
8 x IVDMD.

9 The presence or absence of the brown testa observed in the mature
10 caryopsis is controlled by two dominant gene pairs (Stephens, 1946).
11 Observations to date at Purdue indicates that the presence of the brown
12 testa is associated with low IVDMD and high polyphenol ("tannin") con-
13 tent.

14 15 D. Inheritance of Factors Affecting Nutritional Value

16
17 Fourteen diverse inbreds selected from good yield combiners in the
18 world collection of sorghum grown at Purdue University were crossed onto
19 four male sterile lines (Abifarín, 1969) and significant differences
20 were found among hybrids for maturity, leaf numbers, height, flag leaf
21 area, panicle exertion, panicle length, threshing percent, grain weight
22 per panicle, 100 seed weight, protein percent, lysine as percent of
23 protein, grain yield, protein yield, and lysine yield.

24 Grain yields among the 56 hybrids ranged from 5,854 to 17,288 kg/ha

1 while the parents ranged from 4,001 to 10,363 kg/ha. The ranges for
2 percentage protein was from 9.1 to 14.1% for hybrids and 9.9 to 15.7%
3 for their parents. Values for lysine were 1.69 to 2.27% for hybrids
4 and 1.60 to 2.19% for their parents. Phenotypic and genotypic correla-
5 tion coefficients for yields vs. protein were $-.483$ and $-.483$ while
6 corresponding values for yield vs. lysine were $.258$ and $.337$. Combining
7 abilities for all characters were much higher for general combining
8 ability^(GCA) than for specific combining ability and G.C.A. was highly
9 significant for all characters among males. Narrow sense heritability
10 values were 99% for height, 77% grain yield, 85% percent protein and
11 62% lysine.

12 The relative importance of certain phenotypic characters with
13 respect to grain yield and quality, the intercharacter correlations,
14 combining ability and heterosis were studied (Bantayehu, 1971) in both
15 parental and F_1 generations of 24 phenotypically diverse sorghum lines
16 selected as diverse types from the world collection. Twenty-one
17 characters were measured and there were highly significant genotypic
18 differences obtained in both generations for all characters indicat-
19 ing that progress on each could be expected from a breeding program.
20 General combining ability was predominant to specific combining
21 ability for almost all of the characters studied. Some higher yielding
22 inbred lines produced inferior hybrids and a few poorer performing in-
23 bred resulted in superior hybrids for yield and protein amount and
24 quality. The necessity of direct testing of inbreds for their ability

1 to produce good hybrids was stressed.

2 Grain yields for hybrids ranged from 4,282 to 8,639 kg/ha while
3 the range for their parents was 4,418 to 7,536 kg/ha. The range for
4 protein percent was from 7.75 to 12.60% for hybrids and 10.30 to 14.85%
5 for their parents. Lysine ranged from 1.61 - 2.67% for the hybrids and
6 1.54 to 2.55% for their parents. Heterosis over the better parent
7 ranged from -36.10 to 29.04% for grain yield. The heterosis range for
8 percent protein was -31.34 to 15.20%, while the lysine range was
9 -16.28 to 30.88%. Certain genotypic combinations were found to exhibit
10 positive heterosis for both grain yield and percent protein simul-
11 taneously in spite of the low but significantly negative correlation
12 between the two.

13 The morphological characters studied included leaf number, flag
14 leaf length, width, and area, length, width and area of third leaf from
15 the top, plant height, stem diameter, head exertion, panicle length,
16 tillering, lodging, number of heads per plot, and threshing percentage.
17 These factors were not good indicators of yield, percent protein, per-
18 cent lysine and oil. To date it appears that direct selection for
19 yield and quality may prove to be more effective than the use of these
20 traits as indirect selection indices in the world collection and many
21 other diverse breeding sources (Bantayehu, 1971).

22 Working with 65 sorghum genotypes Collins (1969) found significant
23 correlations of grain yield with percent protein at $r = -.195^{**}$ and
24 percent protein with percent lysine $r = -.304^{**}$, but at a much lower

1 level than many people had previously hypothesized. In an incomplete
2 diallel (Collins, 1969) with 12 restorer lines crossed to four male
3 sterile testers there were significant differences among restorer lines
4 in general combining ability for yield, protein, and lysine. The
5 variation due to specific combining ability was not significant for any
6 of these characters. In a nine parent diallel (Collins, 1969) it was
7 shown that both general and specific combining ability were important
8 for all three characters with general combining ability being far more
9 important for percentage protein and less important for yield and per-
10 centage lysine. Several hybrids, with parents appearing diverse in
11 type, had considerable heterosis for yield, but only a few hybrids
12 showed heterosis for percentage protein while no heterosis was observed
13 for percentage lysine. In this study grain yield and percent protein
14 had a negative correlation of $r = -.57$ and percent protein with percent
15 lysine had $r = -.51$.

16 Collins (1969) described the genotype x location interaction on 11
17 genotypes for two years at three locations. The first order inter-
18 actions were not significant for any character studied but the genotype
19 x location x year interaction was highly significant for grain yield, per-
20 cent protein and protein yield.

21 IV. PROCESSING AND UTILIZATION

22 A. Feed Processes

23 Albin, (1971) Hart, et al., 1970) and Blessin (1971) and others
24

1 have reported various methods of processing that improve the nutri-
2 tional quality of sorghum flour and processed grain. Method (Albin,
3 1971) of processing whole grain include its being ground, dry rolled,
4 soaked, pelleted, steam-rolled, steam process flaked, pressure cooked
5 flaked, high moisture storage, popping, steam pressure popped, dry
6 heat processing, micronizing, exploded, extruded and infused with amino
7 acids (Blessin, 1971). In most cases these processes add considerable
8 to the cost and are difficult to adapt to small feeding operations, but
9 have improved the feed lot performance of sorghum grain.

11 B. Food Uses

13 Blessin (1971) was able to remove the pericarp leaving the endo-
14 sperm, the aleurone layer and germ essentially intact. Essential amino
15 acid balance can be altered significantly by infusion but no feeding
16 values were reported. One of the potential uses in many developing
17 countries is the use of sorghum in a blend to extend wheat supply for
18 bread making. Research by Hart, et al., (1970) reported that the
19 quality of sorghum flour can be improved for such purposes. The addi-
20 tion of methylcellulose increases gas retention and improves texture.
21 Glyceryl monostearate as an additive improves the softness of the bread.
22 The processing of grain for human food will no doubt increase for urban
23 populations and such processes should be much more important in develop-
24 ing countries than at present. Also as more wheat and rice become

1 available these preferred cereals will be used more for human food and
2 improved nutritional sorghum types will be more important for feed
3 grain for livestock. The adaptation of sorghum as a crop to follow rice
4 makes it important to investigate new uses of sorghum for rice consumers
5 in addition to providing some meat to go with the rice. As other grains
6 take over primary areas of grain production, sorghum and millets will
7 undoubtedly become more critical in marginal areas for direct use as
8 human food and feed grain.

9 10 V. FUTURE PROSPECTS

11 The potential for the continued improvement of grain sorghum yield,
12 quantity and quality of protein, utilization, and digestibility is
13 promising. The identification of collected materials now having useful
14 individual and multiple characteristics is well advanced. This is
15 enabling the establishment of diverse populations for selections of
16 recombinations from which lines and hybrids with increased yield and
17 improved nutritional values will result. The continued maintenance of
18 diverse materials in a collection will allow for additional selection
19 for an establishment of populations and selected crosses to overcome
20 nutritional deficiencies, disease, insect and pest resistances, climatic
21 adversities, and individualized acceptance standards. The ultimate
22 increase in tropical use of sorghum as a feed crop will stimulate further
23 the demand for yield potential, quality improvement and environmental
24 adaptations. The current cataloging of sources, yield performances,

1 nutritional values, phenotypic characteristics and environmental inter-
 2 actions of the diverse sorghum collection will continue to stimulate
 3 selection for and development of improved quality varieties with specific
 4 and widely adapted performance standards. As the pressure for increased
 5 food and feed continues the importance and utilization of quality sorghum
 6 grain will be met with increasing numbers of lines and hybrids having
 7 tested and improved yield performances and nutritional qualities.

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Table 1. Genotype by Environment Interactions at Six Locations with Twelve Lines and Twenty-Three Hybrids in 1970.

	Analysis of Variance ⁺					
	% P	% L	P x L	Yield	L x P	L x P x L
Locations	**	**	**	**	**	**
Varieties	**	**	**	**	**	**
L x V	*	NS	**	**	**	**

* - significant at 0.05

** - significant at 0.01

NS - not significant

+ - yield data not available for Nebraska location.

Table 2. 1970 Studies on Embryo-Endosperm Proportions and Compositions for Twenty-Five Sorghum Lines with Oil Content Ranging from 1.92 - 5.22% With a Mean of 3.88%.

Correlations:	% P of Whole Seed	% P of Embryo Seed Half	% P of Non-Embryo Seed Half	% Oil in Whole Seed	% Embryo of whole Seed	L as % of P of Whole Seed	% Meth. of P in Whole Seed
% P of Whole Seed		0.954	0.164	0.667	0.255	0.075	0.297
% P of Embryo Seed Half			0.247	0.561	0.126	0.062	0.258
% P of Non-Embryo Seed Half				-0.042	-0.306	0.035	0.243
% Oil in Whole Seed					0.710	0.318	0.393
% Embryo of Whole Seed						0.377	-0.058
L as % of P of Whole Seed							0.024
% Meth. of P in Whole Seed							

Table 3. Sorghum Composition of Whole Seed Compared to Embryo and Embryo-Free Seed Section.

Seed Section:	<u>WHOLE SEED</u>		<u>EMBRYO</u>		<u>EMBRYO-FREE</u>	
	% Prot.	% Lys.	% Prot.	% Lys.	% Prot.	% Lys.
Variety:						
MX0793	12.1	1.9	21.3	5.7	10.8	1.1
0819	13.4	2.1	24.7	6.2	11.7	1.3
RS610	11.0	2.0	22.8	5.9	9.6	1.1
MX1884	10.6	2.0	22.9	5.5	9.4	1.2
0793	13.5	1.6	18.1	5.8	12.4	1.1
Mart.B	13.2	1.8	22.5	6.5	11.6	1.0

Table 4. Percent Distribution of Proteins in Sorghum Grain Fractions (Landry & Moureaux Method).

Sample Number	025-042-1	025-154	925-006	925-074	025-042-1	025-154	925-006	925-074	Protein fractions obtained in corn
Grain Section	Kernel	Kernel	Kernel	Kernel	Endosperm	Endosperm	Endosperm	Endosperm	
Solvents %									
Sodium chloride	19.2	4.6	19.2	4.3	7.9	2.7	8.5	3.1	Albumins
Isopropanol	18.1	10.3	21	2.1	16.4	16.2	21.0	14.6	Globulins
Isopropanol + 2 Mercaptoethanol	21.2	16.0	24.7	24.1	35.7	26.1	35.8	30.9	Zein
Borate buffer, pH 10 + Mercaptoethanol	8.6	13.4	5.6	15.6	11.1	11.4	6.8	12.2	+G ₁
Borate buffer, pH 10 + 2 Mercaptoethanol + Sodium dodecyl sulfate	32.9	55.7	29.5	53.9	28.9	43.6	28.0	39.21	‡G ₃
Protein %	9.4	10.1	11.2	7.7	8.63	9.52	9.95	7.21	
Lysine %	2.7	2.65	2.70	2.79	1.87	2.13	1.66	2.00	
I.V.D.M.D. ^{1/}	91	48	94	66	91	49	94	66	
Average weight gain per week in rat feeding experiments	6 ^{2/}	-9 ^{2/}	8.7 ^{3/}	-0.2 ^{3/}					

^{1/} In vitro dry matter disappearance.

^{2/} 1 week duration.

^{3/} 4 weeks duration.

+G₁: Alcohol soluble glutelin. Composition is closely related to that of zein.

‡G₂: Saline soluble glutelin. Composition is intermediate between those of zein and saline soluble proteins.

‡G₃: 'Zeanines'. Composition is closely related to that of saline soluble proteins.

le 5. Sorghum Project Rat Feeding Studies - Purdue University - May 1971.

Sorghum Lines	Feed (1) Consumed (g)	Total wt. gain 2 weeks (g)	Total wt. gain 4 weeks (g)	<u>in vitro</u> DMD (2) (%)	Protein (%)	Lysine of Protein (%)	P x L	Threo- nine of Protein (%)	Methio- nine of Protein (%)	Protein x <u>in vitro</u> DMD
925006	226	11.81(3)	34.81	93.6	12.3	2.70	.332	3.24	1.50	1273
925018	175	07.63	20.27	91.5	14.3	1.98	.283	3.47	1.29	1199
IS2319	191	05.73	15.47	87.4	11.8	2.53	.298	3.11	0.69	0970
954116	182	04.45	16.93	89.7	11.9	2.34	.279	3.12	0.89	1067
954054	170	03.90	15.23	83.5	10.4	2.46	.256	3.10	0.89	0818
925060	174	03.70	11.80	68.2	12.4	2.65	.329	3.27	1.22	0791
954131-2	156	02.90	12.51	90.3	11.8	2.22	.263	3.05	1.00	0975
925074	156	-03.28	-00.58	66.4	09.0	2.68	.242	3.58	0.25	0671

(1) 95% grain sorghum, 5% vitamin and mineral supplement.

(2) DMD = Dry Matter Disappearance.

(3) Weigh gains connected by a line are not significantly different (.05 level).

Table 6. Sorghum Project Rat Feeding Study Correlation - Purdue University, May 1971.

	% Protein	% Lysine of Protein	% In vitro DMD	Total g gain 2 wk.	Total g gain 4 wk.	P x L	g Feed Consumed	P x in vitro	% Threonine	% Methionine
% Protein	1.000	-.587**	.562**	.646**	.613**	.581**	.361*	.753**	-.084	.795**
% Lysine		1.000	-.539**	-.040	-.081	.312*	.331*	-.410**	.063	-.225
% In vitro DMD			1.000	.707**	.760**	.157	.491**	.871**	-.490**	.520**
g Total Wt. gain 2 wk.				1.000	.986**	.727**	.893**	.872**	-.254	.837**
g Total Wt. gain 4 wk.					1.000	.656**	.873**	.889**	.316*	.827**
P x L						1.000	.754**	.474**	-.148	.726**
g Feed consumed							1.000	.697**	-.172	.578**
P x In vitro								1.000	-.165	.729**
% Threonine									1.000	-.216
% Methionine										1.000

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level